

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 9, 1871.

The Week.

If any one is still in the dark as to why the majority of people in France are distrustful of the Republic, and prone to seek repose under despotism, we advise him to read carefully the history of the last week. We are now witnessing the natural and unavoidable consequence of not summoning a National Assembly immediately after the fall of the Empire. Nothing but a certainty of success could have justified rational men in prosecuting the war without the authority or support of some recognized embodiment of the national will, because—and this consideration seems too obvious to have escaped notice—in case of defeat there would be nobody competent to make peace, or willing to take the responsibility of making the concessions necessary to secure peace. Defeat has now come, and the National Assembly *has* to be summoned, but it is summoned under the most humiliating conditions—that is to say, by Prussian permission, and under Prussian protection. And now comes into full prominence the inherent falsehood and absurdity of the "Government of National Defence." Gambetta was sent out, appropriately enough, in a balloon, to act as Minister of War and organize armies for the relief of Paris. He at once went to work to call out the levies provided by the law of 1867, and got them out. He formed two armies, of raw farm-boys, officered them in large part with privates and non-commissioned officers of the regular army, and sent them immediately against the enemy. They have been beaten easily, until of late the Prussians have dispersed them with artillery, as they might disperse a mob, and capture them by brigades, Gambetta all the while shrieking defiance. Paris has fallen, and the "Government of National Defence" has done at last what it ought to have done at first, called on the French people to express its will with regard to the prosecution of the war. Gambetta, however, is determined to go on doing what he calls "fighting to the death;" and as one "Government of National Defence" is as good as another, and as a committee formed in the streets in Bordeaux is as competent as a committee formed in the streets of Paris, he set up Government No. 2 in the former city, whose business it was to carry on the war, even if the Paris Government made peace. Moreover, Gambetta, though only Minister of War under Government No. 1, under Government No. 2 assumed the functions of Minister of the Interior, and issued decrees defining the qualifications of candidates for the National Assembly. Nay, more—inasmuch as the National Assembly is to be a constitutional assembly, intended to set up a government where none exists, his prescribing to the constituencies whom they may elect indicated that he considered himself the Minister of Eternal Justice.

The probable effect of all this on the deliberations of the Assembly is, of course, obvious. The Republic was never likely to find much favor with it, or, if set up, to be set up for any better reason than that there was less diversity of sentiment about it than about anything else. But after the display which its leading advocates have been making of themselves, and the termination to which they have managed to bring the war, there is not much likelihood of its permanent establishment. Men who in the presence of the enemy split one provisional government into two, and who, after a series of defeats unparalleled in history and without the simulacrum of an army left, propose to fight on, are hardly likely to have much weight attached to their recommendations. Even if the Republic is established, it will doubtless be a conservative Republic, and the radicals will go to work to denounce it and plot against it; and it will go to work to strengthen itself by restoring the standing army and drawing tight once more the reins of centralization, and so on. We have sketched the probabilities more than once, but any one who is familiar with the history of the last forty years of French history can sketch them for himself. The first thing to be done now

would seem to be to look Gambetta up, and yet, if he were locked up he would become a glorious martyr. Who can help feeling sympathy for Jules Favre, who, in spite of an unfortunate tendency to cry over spilt milk, seems to have preserved his senses and his unselfishness? But he will unquestionably be before long, if he has not been already, added to the long list of French "traitors."

Although the French have certainly the strongest claims upon our charity, it ought not to be forgotten that the Germans are suffering deeply too. They have lost terribly in action and through the hardships of campaigning, and their losses are made all the more painful by the fact that their Landwehr, who are nearly all married men, have been in the field ever since Gravelotte. The Kummer division, which, finding itself assailed by a superior force at Bazaine's last great sortie, on the 17th of October, and the gaining of time being imperative, set its back to the wall and died *en masse* as it stood, was composed almost altogether of fathers of families. The misery wrought by one such day it is not in human power to calculate. Moreover, the Germans have had to support 400,000 French prisoners, a vast number of them sick and wounded—a burden before unknown in war. We must remind sensible people, too, once more, of the absurdity and injustice of the outcry raised against the Germans on account of their exactions and devastations. This outcry is heard against every invading army in every war; and it is raised in each war with as much vigor as if the world had never heard of war before, and as if "requisitions" and "contributions" and plundering were novelties in warfare, and as if the fact that these things are and have always been the inseparable accompaniments of war is not foremost among the reasons which make good and thoughtful men willing to move heaven and earth to avoid war. An invader inevitably becomes cruel and exacting as hostilities go on. He becomes so in the interest of his own safety. When men are dying at the rate of a thousand a day, and the fate of a nation is trembling in the balance, a peasant's roof-tree, or his horse, or his haystacks, become mere bagatelles. It must always be so. The North wasted and wrecked in the South when anything was to be gained by wrecking and wasting. The proper objects of denunciation for all these horrors are, therefore, not the Germans, or any other belligerent troops, but the wretches of all nations who foster the war spirit, and seek the solution of international controversies, not in reason, but in the wild impulses of their own savage and tumultuous breasts.

Excepting the theatre of the war in the East, all hostilities ceased in France immediately after the conclusion of the armistice which surrendered Paris. We hear, it is true, of the occupation of Abbeville by the Prussians without a fight, and of some movements in the vicinity of Yvetot, but all these took place within the limits dividing their forces from those of the French, according to that agreement. The troops of Frederic Charles and Chanzy—the only French general who has preserved something like an army—are separated by a line drawn from a point on the Channel between Honfleur and Caen to a point on the Loire between Tours—now the headquarters of the Prince—and Angers. In the East, fighting was continued in the vicinity of Pontarlier, in the Department of Doubs, General Manteuffel repeatedly assaulting the rear-guard of the retreating French, and capturing nineteen pieces of artillery and fifteen thousand prisoners, and "nests of eagles," while the bulk of what was formerly Bourbaki's army—about sixty thousand—crossed the Swiss frontier and laid down arms chiefly in the Canton of Neuchâtel (in German Neuenburg, which our Cable reports, or their expounders, most ludicrously mixed up with "Neuenburg, on the Baden side of the Rhine"). Garibaldi's command, too, seems to be broken up. This continuation of the fighting was loudly complained of at Bordeaux before the exact tenor of the Versailles armistice was known there; and some of our daily papers even now write explanatory and apologetic remarks about it, after having given, in abstract and in full, the text of the armistice, including these words: "Military ope-

rations in the territory comprising the Departments of Doubs, Jura, and Côte d'Or, as well as the siege of Belfort, will continue independent of the armistice until an agreement is arrived at regarding the line of demarcation, the tracing of which through the three departments mentioned is reserved for an ulterior understanding." This supplementary agreement is now reported to have been concluded.

The most important communications concerning the political situation in France arrive from Bordeaux, where Gambetta and his followers seem to be inclined to keep or to put up an executive machinery independent of the majority of the Government of National Defence, remaining in Paris. On receiving the first despatch from Favre, announcing the armistice, Gambetta, expressing the "country's feverish anxiety" about it, telegraphed to Paris that he "could not order the elections for the National Assembly without further explanations." Soon after, he issued a proclamation to the people urging the necessity of "continuing with unrelaxed vigor the organization for defence, and for war, if necessary," and of "installing a National Republican Assembly, willing to make such a peace only as is compatible with the honor, rank, and integrity of France;" and also a decree ordering the elections for the 8th, but disqualifying as candidates all members of the Bourbon, Orléans, and Bonaparte families, as well as all persons who, under the Second Empire, acted as ministers or councillors of state, senators, prefects, or official candidates. This disqualification clause was protested against by twelve opposition journals at Bordeaux, and, as it seems, by public opinion in the North generally; disavowed by Jules Simon, who arrived in that city soon after its publication; ignored in the corresponding election decree issued by Jules Favre in Paris; declared by Bismarck contrary to the stipulation of the armistice; and finally annulled by a special decree signed by all the members of the Paris Government, and maintaining the supreme authority of the latter. Gambetta, however, defended his ordinance, as "frustrating the plans and insolent pretensions of Bismarck and his Imperialist accomplices," and issued a declaration maintaining the electoral disqualifications, and signed by himself, Glais-Bizoin, Fourichon, and Crémieux, who has since left for Paris, to explain the state of things. The Paris Government, on the other hand, is reported to have finally withdrawn all the powers of the Bordeaux Delegation. Amidst all this confusion, the elections (for 753 deputies) were to be held on the 8th, and the National Assembly to be opened on the 12th.

It is certainly of evil augury for the speedy conclusion of a definitive treaty of peace that the National Assembly is to hold its sittings at Bordeaux, a city with an excitable southern population, yet untouched and almost unthreatened by the war, and fired with the reckless patriotism of the Gambetta faction. Scarcely had the news of the surrender of Paris reached the capital of the Gironde when its municipality protested "against peace on any dishonorable terms," and implored the Delegation to remain at their post. A few days later a public meeting was held, in which a Committee of Public Safety was nominated for the future government of France, including Gambetta, Louis Blanc, and Rochefort. Whether these three, of whom the first thunders against "the insolence" of the German Chancellor, the second called the Prussian King "the Attila of the nineteenth century," and the third announces a new journal which "will advocate regicide," were thus chosen to carry on peace negotiations with Bismarck and William, or immediately to renew the war with them, is not stated. Another mass-meeting formally called upon Gambetta "to accept the Presidency of a Committee of Public Safety, and prosecute the war to the death." And if there be truth in the Cable report of a response made by the Prefect of the Department, in the name of Gambetta, to a later demonstration, that member of the Delegation will hardly be inclined to listen to the peaceful advice of the members of the Paris Government, who are to appear at Bordeaux to justify their conduct before the Assembly—a motley gathering, which it may not be impossible to terrorize into an attitude opposed both to the will and the interest of the people. However, it may be unjust to judge the intentions of Gambetta by his words. The populace of Lyons, with Bour-

baki's defeat and Manteuffel's army before it, talks like that of Bordeaux, and clamors for the "Commune."

The cities of the North, however, loudly declare in favor of peace. That Paris, too, desires peace, in spite of all clamors to the contrary, cannot be doubted. In that capital, care for the opening of new supplies and preparations for the election engross all thoughts. All shades of parties seem to be active, and we hear of different electoral tickets, embracing "Reds" like Félix Pyat, Rochefort, and Delescluze; radicals like Victor Hugo, Garibaldi, Quinet, and Gambetta; moderate republicans like Jules Favre, Jules Simon, Picard, Pelletan, Emmanuel Arago, Garnier-Pagès, and Jules Ferry; and monarchists like Thiers, Changarnier, and Keller. A report, which may or may not be founded on impartial observation, has it that "neither the Government of National Defence, nor the Red Republicans, nor the Imperialists have any chance of carrying the elections," and that "the public favor the moderate party"—which means the Orleanists. In the interest of the latter, the Duc d'Aumale has issued an address to the French electors, in which he reserves his opinion as to peace or war, speaks of the advantages of monarchy for France, draws a contrast between the France ruled by his father, Louis Philippe, and the France of to-day—a contrast which it required but too little skill to bring out—and declares his determination to be faithful to the Republic should the nation resolve to retain it. Trochu has declined to stand as a candidate, while Garibaldi is reported ready to represent Nice, his native land—which, with a consistency peculiarly his own, he will probably reclaim from France in case this country re-erects the throne. No opposition to the elections seems to be made by the Germans, even in the districts which they are determined to sever from France. The conditions of peace they mean to impose upon their prostrate neighbors are still kept secret, and the Emperor William not only speaks of the possibility of the war being renewed, but actually calls out fresh reserves—which is probably meant as an answer to the taunts from Bordeaux. Paris, which surrendered nineteen hundred pieces of artillery and about one hundred and eighty thousand regulars, marines, and Mobiles—besides the National Guard—has to pay for the armistice forty million dollars, and may soon have to pay more, possibly much more, for peace.

Foreigners have in the meantime but one duty, and that is, to do what they can to relieve the awful suffering caused by the war. A committee of the Chamber of Commerce has, we are glad to see, been formed in this city to collect and take charge of and forward contributions of all kinds, including supplies and seed for sowing the crops in spring, of which whole districts are now destitute. A similar movement has been begun in Boston. Of course, contributions in kind will take a good while to collect and forward; but in the meantime \$10,000 have been placed at the disposal of Mr. Washburne by telegraph, and we trust other sums will rapidly follow. Money is what is most of all needed, and for the simple reason that money will bring speediest relief to the suffering. For the seed for their farms they can wait for some weeks; but food they must have now. We can only say that the reports of the agents sent out by the English for the relief of the peasantry in the rear of the hostile armies more than confirm the stories told by newspaper correspondents of their privations. They have in many places been fought over, then levied on by the Prussians, and levied on by their own armies, and informally robbed by the Francs-Tireurs. Nothing but prompt succor will prevent famine and pestilence next year. It must not be forgotten, too, that nobody's opinions as to the origin of the war ought to affect his action in the matter of relief. Congress has passed a resolution requesting the Government to furnish national ships for the conveyance of the supplies, which is an excellent idea; but the project was near being marred by an unseemly discussion as to whether we were more indebted to the French or Germans, the idea of some senators being apparently that acts of Christian charity should never be done except as a *quid pro quo*, and that whenever you are asked to do any helpless or suffering person a kindness, you should look in your diary and see whether he had ever done you a kindness, and then strike a balance, and see whether there was anything coming to him.

The admission of Mr. Joshua Hill as rightful Senator from Georgia has been the most marked event of the week in the Senate. The majority which ordered this simple act of justice was a large one, and Mr. Hill's colleague, Mr. Miller, will doubtless soon take his seat beside him. The Senate has passed the Consular and Diplomatic and the West Point Appropriation Bills, and a useful bill from the House to protect the food fishes on the coasts of the United States. On Wednesday week, the House, after a turbulent debate, virtually abolished the iron-clad oath for persons not constitutionally disabled from holding office. On Thursday, it very properly refused to extend the time for building the St. Croix and Lake Superior Railway, thereby saving the country a million of acres; but on Monday it gave a chance of success to the Southern Pacific Railway, by taking it from the Speaker's table. The Judiciary Committee has reported adversely to the McGarrahan claim, and one could wish that this might be the end of the swindle.

The Statement of the National Debt on the 1st of February shows a reduction of four millions on the net total of indebtedness. The bonded debt has been diminished nearly eleven millions, and the accrued interest reduced fourteen millions, making an apparent reduction of twenty-five millions, but as twenty-one millions of these were paid out of cash resources previously on hand, the real reduction out of surplus revenues is only four millions. The coin now in the Treasury, belonging to the Government, is sixty-seven millions, against which it owes twenty-one millions of accrued interest, leaving forty-six millions as the accumulation of coin upon which some persons base their anticipations of an early resumption of specie payments. The currency balance is nearly six millions lower than last month, which is a move in the right direction, reducing somewhat the extravagant amount of cash lying idle in the Treasury vaults, while we are paying six per cent. coin interest on the bonds. The Secretary's financial programme indicates a continued adherence to the wise policy of reducing the cash balances, since he proposes to sell only four millions of gold while buying six millions of bonds; so that, from this alone, his cash balance is likely to be diminished at least two millions. There is no good reason why it should not be reduced fifteen or sixteen millions more.

The very best thing the advocates of the San Domingo Annexation scheme could do to push it, would be to get England to entertain a secret hankering after it, or, failing England, Prussia or Spain. The report that Bismarck was determined to have it was worth any money as long as it lasted; but it reached the rascal's ears at last, and he has accordingly written over, declaring he has not the least desire for it or any other territory on this side the Atlantic. This is very awkward; but is there no consolation to be found in the fact that Bismarck is a very unscrupulous person, and does not mind what he says? In the meantime, we have some ships of war at Hayti, whose mission, it appears, is to warn the Haytians not to interfere, on pain of being bombarded—a not unnecessary precaution, as it was undoubtedly the interference of the Haytians which prevented the consummation of the last Spanish occupation. The Haytian opposition is, unfortunately, hardly sufficient to rouse popular feeling on the subject. On the whole, we think it may be said that the annexation plan, as far as it has yet gone, is one of the least creditable transactions in diplomatic history. The letter of Admiral Lee, in command of the United States ships off the island, recommending annexation at any cost, is one of the most objectionable passages in the story.

A jury has been found, in Ohio, to convict a husband of manslaughter for murdering a man whom he suspected of seducing his wife. He prepared for the crime with great deliberation, chose his pistol carefully, and practised with it the day before. The defence was, as usual, insanity; but it broke down. There were the usual scenes in court, but the fact that he was not acquitted in triumph as "a guardian of the family" shows that public sentiment is improving. He has gone to jail for ten years, with hard labor.

Somebody—"a valued friend"—wrote to the New York *Tribune*, from Washington, arguing against the absurd plan now proposed of re-

viving American shipping by levying duties on shipbuilding materials, and then handing the money over to ship-owners to enable them to sail the ships, which, without this aid, they could not do. He suggested that, instead of this, these duties should not be levied, and, the ship-builders being thus enabled to build ships more cheaply, the ship-owners would not need subsidies. To this the *Tribune* replies, that it is opposed to this plan because it would not be "effectual" (whatever this may mean), and would "encourage smuggling," and would give "the lower class of demagogues an excellent lever for upsetting our whole tariff system, by crying out, 'Farmers, why should you not have your iron free, etc., as well as these millionaire ship-owners, etc.?" There is no doubt it would; but then there is nearly as much mischief in mentioning this as in doing it. "The lower class of demagogues" can also demand subsidies, by parity of reasoning, for the farmers as well as free iron. For instance, most farmers now find it very hard work to make ends meet, particularly in New England. With a subsidy of say one hundred dollars an acre, every farm in the East would pay beautifully. So we shall have the Demagogues saying, "Farmers, is it not as important that your fields should bear crops as that the bloated ship-owners of New York should plough the ocean with their fleets?"—and yet Old Greeley is willing to pay them large salaries out of the public treasury for following their own business, while to you he is not willing to give a cent. How long, Farmers—how long"—etc., etc.

Money is very easy, but not readily obtainable for new investments. Stocks are higher but not active; Government bonds firm. The risks of the Farmers' and Mechanics' Life Insurance Co., recently suspended, have been transferred to another company, approved by the Superintendent of the Department at Albany, so that the insured are better off than was at first anticipated. Real estate continues in a rather unsatisfactory condition, but without any positive decline, and in some instances even at an advance. Sales, however, are very restricted, few new buildings are contemplated, and the tendency of rents is apparently downward. The great coal strike continues, and is now alarming the railroads and the iron-furnace owners, several of which latter have suspended operations, nominally in consequence of the deficient supply of coal, but in reality, probably, because the business has not for some time past been over-profitable. The earnings of some of the roads, especially those which are not themselves owners of large coal properties, are materially reduced by the strike, and their whole business deranged. But so far, no one has been able to suggest any relief, and the first and only sign of a prospect of any change is the departure last week of a colony of Welsh miners from the Lehigh region to some of the newly-discovered coal-fields in the Western States. The production of coal for 1870 is more than two million tons, over twelve and one-half per cent. in excess of consumption. No amount of striking can permanently remedy such an evil. There have been some failures in the provision trade, especially among the butter speculators, but on the whole trade seems to be steadily gaining in regularity and stability.

The general business of the country continues fair but light, and some disappointment is expressed at the very quiet tone of all trade. But the latter is unquestionably due to the cessation of speculation of almost every description, which has been freshly illustrated by the complete indifference with which the surrender of Paris has been everywhere received. Breadstuffs and provisions, which were to advance enormously, have, instead, rather declined, while cotton has been weak and lower. The demand for bills for remittance to Europe has been slightly in excess of the supply, and a moderate amount of gold has had to be sent instead. The premium has, in consequence, advanced one and one-half to two per cent., and a feeling is growing up that large shipments are in prospect. The drain of coin from England to the Continent is thought by many to be only temporarily suspended, and to be subject to an early renewal, which might have the effect of compelling enlarged shipments from here, and an advance in the premium. But the condition of the foreign exchanges, though as yet far from healthy, is sounder now that at any time since the war at this season of the year.

THE WEST POINT TROUBLES.

THE state of things at the West Point Academy, though on the surface it is only a question of military education, really throws fresh light on some of our most puzzling political problems. We do not mean to say that it offers any aid in solving them, but it certainly helps us to an understanding of their real nature; and no doubt it may be said that this *does* promise to render their solution all the easier. The school has had a brilliant and yet somewhat unfortunate history. It has proved a first-class instrument for the training of soldiers, but it also proved, in the days of slavery, a nursery of pro-slavery sentiment. This was by no means surprising, considering the extent to which this sentiment pervaded society, the church, the schools, and colleges, and associations of all kinds, all over the country, especially as the Academy always contained a large and by no means timid or retiring Southern element; and considering, too, that in the art of war obedience occupies the same exalted position among the virtues that it had of necessity to occupy in pro-slavery sociology. It is not possible, indeed, to make a man a good soldier without making him deeply sensible of its value and importance; and when we say that in all modern democratic societies, and more particularly in that of the United States, obedience has not only lost the character of a virtue, but is rapidly assuming that of a discreditable weakness, if not of a vice, we indicate in a very few words the great difficulty which the West Point school, or any school similarly organized, must always have in maintaining itself in a community like ours.

The school was getting rid of its unfortunate pro-slavery troubles, and was in a fair way of profiting by the splendid part its graduates had played in the war, and by the stern lesson of the importance of order and discipline which the war had given to a vast body of young men of all classes and conditions, when it encountered another difficulty which it has not yet surmounted, and which there is no knowing whether it will be able to surmount. The anti-slavery agitation had two effects on the popular or—if we may make the distinction—on the political mind of the country. It did a great deal—did what, perhaps, no other agency would have done—to clear people's conceptions as to the proper bases of the social organization. It gave the ideas of justice, equality, and human brotherhood a lodgment in the national conscience which they perhaps could not otherwise have secured without centuries of preaching and learning. But it also presented the world with the spectacle of a tremendous social and political revolution achieved within the lifetime of a single generation by the plainest and simplest presentation of a few homely moral truths. It was conducted without art, or method, or even tact. It won through sheer courage and persistence. It owed nothing to learning, skill, or discipline. It consequently fell in with and helped greatly to strengthen a tendency which has been growing rapidly ever since the application of steam to locomotion led to the growth of what may be called a great pioneer population at the West, and to an unprecedented influx of ignorant immigrants from Europe: the tendency to underrate learning, skill, and discipline, and to treat them as the instruments or toys of a worn-out civilization—the devices of privileged classes to justify their own monopoly of the work of government or direction—which has had a strong influence in lowering the character of the judiciary and the bar as well as of the legislatures.

The great success of the agitation, too, brought to the front and gave a powerful control over affairs to a class which we have taken the liberty of calling Sentimentalists for short, but who might more correctly be called "*a priori* politicians," and whose leading peculiarities we have more than once sketched. One of these is hostility to or profound distrust of *training* of all kinds. Some of them are really philanthropists who have been overpowered by the fumes of transcendentalism, but they have been reinforced by a larger body of mere ignoramuses, who delight in the *a priori* system not so much because they believe in an inner light as because it exacts no qualifications of anybody, and permits of no distinctions except those based on each man's account of the condition of his own heart. The influence of this party on legislation we have often described in the columns of the *Nation*. The badness of its effects on the character of politicians and on the administrative system it would

be difficult to exaggerate. It is the great obstacle to a reform in the bar, in the judiciary, in the civil service, in the prisons, and to rational temperance legislation. It has begotten the Woman's Rights agitation—which is a different thing from woman's rights—and by its general hostility to tests, and to all systems of accountability, it may be held indirectly responsible for much of the prevailing political and commercial corruption.

In this class the West Point Academy finds, it need hardly be said, an uncompromising and jealous foe, eager for its destruction as a bad relic of a bad state of things. The entrance of the colored cadet into the school was, therefore, more than the assertion of the rights of an oppressed race; it was to be a test which was to reveal the rotten moral condition of the institution. It must be admitted that, considering the state of feeling about colored people among the white population of the country at large, from the bosom of which the white cadets come, it was a pretty severe test. The number of white persons in the United States who are willing to or who do in practice associate with colored persons on terms of perfect equality might, we venture to say, be contained in one room of moderate size, so that in asking the cadets to receive the new-comer with perfect cordiality, we were asking them for a display of self-control, not to say of moral heroism, of which, unfortunately, their fathers and mothers and uncles and aunts have not as yet shown themselves capable. It is not quite fair, it must be remembered, to cite against the West Point students the example of the comfort and equality enjoyed by colored students at Yale and Harvard and some others of the non-professional schools. In all of these a student's life is a very independent one. He eats, or it may be sleeps, where he pleases, and need never meet his classmates except at recitation. The relation in which students stand to each other may be, therefore, and in the majority of cases is, one of mere acquaintanceship. At West Point, on the contrary, the college takes complete possession of the student, and forces him to eat, sleep, and sit, and march in close contact, with all his fellows, and cuts him off, except under certain stringent restrictions, from all intercourse with the world outside, and this on an isolated plateau remote from any large town or city. A disagreeable mate becomes, under such circumstances, doubly disagreeable, and the prejudices and idiosyncrasies which forced companionship always brings out, are developed and strengthened. We are not now passing any judgment on the treatment experienced by Cadet Smith. We have no doubt his position has been very trying, and his treatment hard to bear. One only needs a little knowledge of human nature to know this; but it is unjust to throw the blame of it all on West Point or the West Point system. The root of his troubles is to be found in public opinion. When we see colored people generally rated in society as they ought to be, and as white people are, by their looks, and manners, and education, and character, we shall have a right to be uncompromising in our condemnation of the position of the white cadets towards Smith, but hardly any sooner. The easiest remedy to apply would be the break-up of the barrack system, and the relegation of the students to their own control, except at stated hours; but the difficulty in the way of this is, that the object of discipline, in the military sense, is, first, the formation of certain habits, and, secondly, the impressing on the mind the importance of small details—important in all pursuits, but nowhere so important as in war—and neither of these things seems possible without taking entire possession of the pupil.

The Congressional investigation which has just taken place into the outrage committed on three students of the first class by their fellows, has brought out into strong light the nature of the influence exercised on the Academy by "politics." "Politics" has, in fact, brought its discipline to the lowest possible ebb. In the first place, if we are correctly informed, the present superintendent not only was not entitled to his place in virtue of his acquirements—he graduated very low, almost the lowest in his class—but he owed it mainly to the early adhesion of a relative to the famous "policy" of Mr. Andrew Johnson, and the school has with his advent been removed from the management of the Engineers, in whose hands it has always hitherto been, and in whose hands, as the most highly trained body of officers in the profession, it ought always to remain. This is bad enough; but, in the second

place, the influence of individual Congressmen at Washington on the War Department has practically deprived the officers of the institution of the power of enforcing discipline. In a large number of cases of late—twenty-two, it is said, but we will not vouch for the exact number—sentences of court-martial have been set aside by the War Department on the demand of “men inside politics,” and the culprits sent back to their duty. This abuse has been perpetrated, as might have been expected, notably in the interest of liars. Lying is a serious moral and social offence; it is a still more serious military offence. No liar can be tolerated in a body which has to rely so strongly for its comfort and credit on the honor and self-respect of its members as the army officers. It is destructive of character and discipline, and would, at the school, double the work of supervision. Officers and sentries have to take the word of cadets as to their observance of a good many rules, and probably nothing does more to keep up the moral tone of the institution and enable it, in spite of the prevalence of certain other vices, to produce the one body of public servants who have for a century served the Government unto death, without cheating it or stealing from it, than the pains taken to secure truth-telling. “Politicians,” however, look on lying as a very trifling offence; most of them lie consummately; it plays a prominent part among the tools of their trade. Sentimentalists, too, have no great horror of it. Indeed, if a man “is sound on the main question,” whatever it may happen to be, they will excuse a great deal of lying; and some of their most honored and admired members are notoriously mendacious. Their very system, indeed—and particularly that feature of it which consists in ignoring facts—helps to form a habit of untruthfulness.

The readiness with which Congressmen and others rush to the War Department and obtain the remission of sentences passed for this offence is, therefore, easily understood. The cadets have, consequently, been reduced to despair with regard to its suppression by the constituted authorities, and, in their despair, some members of the first class carried three delinquents off to the mountains in the night, and warned them not to return. It was a gross outrage, but here, again, the sin and shame lie not so much with the young men who have committed the outrage, as with the community which permits its leading educational institution to remain in the control of the worthies whose nominees fill the civil service. If we are going to have reform, therefore, let it be thorough. These Congressional investigations are a sorry and disreputable farce. They cannot restore discipline. The committees are sent out by and report to a body which hates discipline. If we went to Yale, or Harvard, or any other leading college of the country, and asked their managers whether they thought they could conduct them to the promotion of sound learning and good morals and manners if subject to the same kind of supervision as that from which West Point suffers, they would answer unanimously and emphatically no; and we have no hesitation in predicting for West Point, as long as it forms part of the party “spoils,” a steady and uninterrupted decline. Unless some means of delivering it from Congressional influence—a reform in the civil service would do it—can be devised, it were far better its work were undertaken by some of the existing universities which have absolute control of their own funds and rules.

THE MAJORITY IN FRANCE

It is calculated that the peasantry, or at least the inhabitants of the rural districts either engaged in agriculture or in occupations closely connected with agriculture, form three-fourths of the population, and, therefore, of the voters of France. They will, consequently, probably exercise a larger influence not only on the composition but on the policy of the coming Constituent Assembly than any other class, and it is likely to be greater at this election than at any other which has preceded it, owing to the derangement of the administrative machinery through the war. When this machinery was in good working order, the peasantry voted, under the dictation of the Government for the time being—in 1848, for instance, under the direction of the republican commissaires, of whom Emile Ollivier was one, despatched from Paris for the purpose; and in 1852, and ever since, under the direction of the imperial prefects and maires. This explains the fact that the party in

power in France has always an enormous majority in its favor whenever it submits any question to the people. M. Gambetta would now have an enormous majority in his favor if he had the machinery in good repair. Its partial paralysis over two-thirds of the country makes it probable that the peasantry will this time be more influenced in casting their ballots by their own hopes, fears, and prejudices, and by the advice of the curés, than they have ever been before. Their mental and moral condition is, therefore, just now a subject of considerable interest.

The hopes which the French liberals began to entertain in 1869, under the influence of three or four victories achieved in the rural districts over official candidates, of effecting a peaceful change in the character of the Government through the ballot-box, led to a good deal of discussion of the peasantry from the political point of view; and in the course of this discussion an interesting little volume was produced on the subject by M. Ferdinand de Lasteyrie, a member of the Institute and a distinguished Liberal member both of the Chamber of Deputies under the Orleanists and of the National Assembly before the *coup d'état*. He wrote with special reference to the elections then pending, and his observations have, of course, since then gained rather than lost in value. From them we shall try to give some idea of what the condition of rural life in France is.

As regards religion, no generalization would be accurate. There is the greatest difference in the strength of the religious sentiment in different parts of the country. In the neighborhood of the great towns it can hardly be said to exist; on the other hand, in the remoter districts, such as Bretagne, there remains to this day the old intensity of, and, we may add, the old unity of, belief. There are here no sects. The population is wholly Catholic and bigotedly Catholic. In other districts, where Protestants are to be found in large numbers, the effect of the division on the religious feeling of the community varies considerably. In old Poitou, for instance—the region around the beloved Rochelle of the Huguenots—where the fires of fanaticism on both sides once burnt so fiercely, the Protestants are now generally sceptical, and the Catholics indifferent. On the other hand, go into Alsace and Lorraine, where the Germanic element predominates in the population, and we find strong and deep religious feeling combined with complete toleration. Protestants and Catholics live in perfect harmony in the same villages. In the valleys of the Cévennes, on the contrary, the religious hates are still fierce and bitter, and are intensified by political differences. Through the greater part of rural France, however, Protestants are unknown outside the towns, and the Catholicism is neither very warm nor very cold. The peasant women are, almost universally, at least regular in their attention to church ordinances—those who are not really pious being kept to their duty by public opinion, or, more correctly, by the sharp tongues of their neighbors, who, if a woman failed to take the sacrament, for instance, would be sure to impute it to her inability to get absolution from the curé for some mortal sin.

The men are tolerably diligent church-goers, and for much the same reasons which influence the bulk of church-goers here. Some go from habit, others under the influence of sincere belief, and all in order to make a little break in the monotony of life. There are few peasants, however, who are not superstitious, even if not religious. The most indifferent and sceptical get their cattle blessed by the priest once a year, and are pretty sure to meet the devil now and then either in the shape of a wolf, or of a grey dog, or a black cow, or a white hen, in a wood, or a ruined castle, or other lonely place. The influence of the priest is great, though perhaps not as great as is commonly supposed. He is usually the only man of any education in the commune with whom the peasant comes in contact—that is, the only man competent to give advice or explanation on the few moral and social problems by which the peasant mind is troubled. The priest, too, it must be admitted, not only connives at but encourages superstitious observances and beliefs, his horror of rationalism leading him to regard the state of mind which generates them, if not as religious, as, at least, a great help to religion.

The peasant can hardly be said to have any education. In spite of the efforts of M. Guizot and M. Duruy, the public schools are few and

far between. In the districts which need them most, they can hardly be said to exist, and they are everywhere largely in the hands of the priests, and are, therefore, rather nurseries of Catholic doctrine than instruments of secular education. The want of all sense of the value and importance of instruction among the parents, and the absence of any display of interest in its diffusion on the part of the state and the clergy, make the attendance of the children even on such schools as exist very irregular, and the scraps of knowledge they pick up are, in the total absence of books and periodicals, rapidly forgotten. There does not exist in France anything like the cheap periodical literature of this country or of England, and every obstacle has been thrown by the Government in the way of the creation of one, so that neither books nor papers can be said to find their way out of the great towns. There are but few villages in which one would find anything but almanacs, song-books for the men, and perhaps a few hymn-books for the women. The consequence is that there is found to be no relation in many of the departments between the number of boys who attend school and the number of literate young men among the conscripts. A philanthropic gentleman, M. Jean Macé, recently attempted to set on foot an organized system of communal (town) libraries, but want of funds, want of a room for the books, and of volunteer librarians to take charge of them, and the difficulty of choosing books which the government and the church would both approve of, have thus far prevented his success. Indeed, it may be said that "the Man of Sedan" threw every possible obstacle in the way of anything which promised to increase the mental activity of the rural districts, well knowing it would be fatal to him and his régime.

If the men are ignorant, the women are still more ignorant. If the peasant boys get but little schooling, the peasant girls get none. The ideas current among the French peasantry as to woman's proper position in society would cause a woman's suffrage convention to dash their chignons on the floor and rend their velvet gowns. She is the mere servant of her husband. She scrubs, and cooks, and washes, and works by his side, if need be, in the fields. She waits at table when there are several males in the family, and only eats her meals after her own son has finished his. If there is wine brought up to treat a guest, no glass is ever set for her. She speaks of her husband as "the master," and obeys him loyally and implicitly. He, too, finds her company tolerably dull, and though he is on the whole kind to her, and peasant marriages are, everything considered, tolerably happy, he is apt to spend his evenings at the cabaret; and not for the sake of drink, for drunkenness is not a common vice among the peasantry, but for the sake of company.

It may be guessed from all this what the peasant's state of mind is as regards politics. He is perhaps the fiercest and most intense supporter of the institution of property known to modern society. He hates socialists and socialism as nobody else hates them. For the possession of land he has a perfect passion, and will plunge himself into any difficulties in order to secure it. A peasant with only \$500 will, M. Lasteyrie says, often not only put the whole of it into land, leaving nothing for working capital, but buy \$1,500 worth, borrowing the other \$1,000, and laboring under a load of debt all his life, and living with the most extraordinary parsimony. Nothing can surpass his frugality and his industry.

Although the memories of the Revolution have died out, and none of the present generation knows anything of seigneurial oppression, of taille, or corvée, or gabelle, the passion for equality which the Revolution bred still survives, and is apparently strong as ever. The hatred of the well-to-do classes, too, that most alarming of all French social phenomena, is fully as strong among the peasantry as among the artisans of the towns. It is, in part, a legacy of the old régime—when those of the nobles who could live in the cities did so, steadily kept down all interest in country life, came to their chateaux as a sort of penance, and made no secret of the contempt and even horror with which they regarded the country people. The result was that not only did the feudal feeling of attachment between lord and retainer expire sooner in France than elsewhere, but it was succeeded, in the breast of the peasants, by a hatred of their lords for which it would be vain to seek for a counterpart in England or Germany or even Russia. This sus-

picion has not disappeared with the disappearance of the privileged noblesse. It has simply been extended over a wider area, and now reaches nearly every man who wears a black coat and has white hands, and finds vent occasionally in such outbursts of savagery as that which occurred recently near Tours, at the outbreak of the war, when a crowd of peasants assailed a gentleman of the neighborhood in the streets of a village, and, after torturing him horribly for an hour, burnt him alive, on suspicion of hostility to the Empire. Nothing perhaps has done more to attach the peasantry to the Empire than the feeling that, as long as they had it, they would not be governed by the black-coated people.

The peasant's conception of government is very simple, namely, that of an irresistible force, emanating from Paris, and protecting life and property. Of law, as a rule controlling the functionaries as well as the citizens, he has no conception at all. The state is known to him as "*l'autorité*," and it is personated in the prefect and the maire, who represent in their turn a mysterious power in Paris, which he obeys, and in which he trusts as in Providence. Revolutions have hitherto not in the least affected his allegiance to it. Provided a mandate comes to him along the regular channels, he obeys it implicitly and unquestioningly, whether the central government call itself a republic or an empire. He votes, not as a right or as a privilege, but as a duty imposed on him by the authorities for certain wise reasons, to him unknown and unknowable. The ballot he can rarely read, and he drops it in the box to oblige the maire or the brigadier of the gendarmerie. The legislature, during the Empire, he has always looked on as a collection of persons employed by the emperor in certain official duties, the nature of which he did not understand, and opposition candidates he considered turbulent, ill-conditioned people, who could hardly complain if they were locked up for setting themselves against the prefect. Hardly any peasant knows anything of the constitution, of its nature or effects, or of his rights under it. In fact, the idea of a constitution or an organic law is something almost incomprehensible to him. Nothing he has ever seen or heard of, or that his fathers have told him of, helps to explain its nature to him. On this point he is, however, not much worse off than his superiors in rank and education. There are very few Frenchmen indeed who, if placed in possession of the reins of government, do not find great difficulty in allowing themselves to be bound by the letter of the law. In fact, the drawing of constitutions has, in France, always been rather a means of expressing feelings and opinions, like preambles and resolutions at our public meetings, than of providing a paramount rule of conduct; and, in practice, everybody who finds that they interfere with his convenience treats them as a nullity when he can do so, or thinks he can do so, with impunity.

ENGLAND.—THE STATE OF PARTIES.

LONDON, January 20, 1871.

IT is three weeks to the opening of Parliament, and symptoms of the approaching contest are beginning to make themselves manifest. Mr. Forster and Mr. Stansfeld have been addressing their constituents, and have by no means found that complacent reception which is generally conceded to members of a powerful government. In both cases, amendments were passed at crowded meetings conveying some degree of censure upon these two gentlemen, who are generally considered to be amongst the ablest of our present officials. Though the significance of such symptoms may not in itself be very great, and though the demonstration against Mr. Gladstone, of which I spoke in my last letter, seems to be of doubtful authenticity, yet, putting these and other less definite indications together, I think that the prospect for the session is far from quieting. There is an uneasy movement in the political atmosphere; the confidence formerly felt in Mr. Gladstone's government has palpably declined; and though it may be difficult to point to any distinct and unequivocal omen of danger, we are, if I am not mistaken, in that state of vague yet serious disquiet which generally portends a storm. There is no loud cry of discontent, but there is much indefinite murmuring, and I have heard it said, though such sayings are based upon very uncertain conjecture, that if a general election were to take place to-morrow, the Government would be left in a hopeless minority but for the seats which still fulfil the functions of rotten boroughs. In a general way, the present

Government seems to be in a position something like that of the Whig ministry two years after the old Reform Bill. They came in with a large majority, due to the first impulse of the triumphant party; but they have failed to satisfy the expectations of their ardent supporters; there is a disappointment, more or less reasonable; and a kind of reaction is produced which threatens a new division of parties. Without dwelling upon the merits of the analogy, I will endeavor to point out what are, in my opinion, the most serious causes of the existing uneasiness.

In the first place, then, it is undeniable that some very good work was done in the last session of Parliament. In spite of all that can be said by way of drawback, it would be difficult to point to any previous occasion on which two such important pieces of legislation as the Irish Land Bill and the Education Bill have been passed in one session. Why, then, did they fail to give satisfaction? The answer must be found partly in the peculiar character of Mr. Gladstone. He is a man singularly open to influences from every quarter. No one shows more eloquence and greater powers of mind in advocating any measures which he has been led to adopt. But he is an impulsive man, in the sense of receiving rather than giving an impulse. He is wanting in independence and strength of character; he accepts a policy, but is not capable of originating one; and the consequence is that his measures are marked by a certain indecision and a desire to conciliate the support of all parties. Thus, in the Education Bill, he endeavored to steer a judicious middle course; and, instead of throwing himself unreservedly upon the support of the more thoroughgoing members of his party, tried in some cases to strike out a plan which should be satisfactory to everybody, and, in others, to shirk a decision and leave important questions to the action of the local bodies instead of Parliament. The result has been that the Liberal party generally have looked upon the measure with very qualified feelings. They feel that so large a majority ought to have produced a decided victory; instead of a victory, it has led to a drawn battle, in which each side may claim considerable advantages. Thus the zeal of the more ardent radicals has been decidedly damped; and though I think that they have been guided more by passion than by any calm appreciation of the results actually obtained, the result has been a very marked falling off in enthusiasm, and, indeed, in some cases, a distinct turn in the current. Mr. Gladstone is not held to be a traitor; but neither is he regarded as a trustworthy leader. Parties, according to somebody, are like snakes, where the head is propelled by the tail; but the head, though deriving his power from the tail, ought to impress the tail with a sense that the head is not in need of too much pushing; and the best feeling about Mr. Gladstone is the rather unsatisfactory belief that he will go right if he is sufficiently bullied. That is not a sentiment calculated to produce much enthusiasm.

But, beyond this, recent events on the Continent have contributed to shake the strength of the Government. Nobody is very well satisfied with our foreign policy. It is indeed difficult to say what Mr. Gladstone ought to have done which he has not done. But that is just the question which vehement partisans consider themselves dispensed from answering. They naturally say it is enough for us to find fault with your action; it is your business to discover the line of action which would have obviated our blame. Nobody in England was in favor of taking part in the war when it began; nobody, with a few exceptions, is in favor of taking part in it at the present moment. The Russian difficulty could hardly have been met by any policy substantially different from that which our Government adopted. All this may be true enough, and it may prove that the existing dissatisfaction is rather unreasonable. People seem to say, in substance, Our policy should have been spirited without being warlike; we should have obtained everything we required from Russia without ever firing or wishing to fire a gun; we should have pacified France and Germany by simple force of negotiation and fine words; and, in some way or other, we should have taken up a dignified position and exerted a great influence upon the counsels of Europe, without the material sacrifices which are the ordinary price to be paid for such a result. Mr. Gladstone might reply very fairly, You wished for impossibilities, and you must not blame us for failing to obtain them. We have managed to keep the peace, and that is a definite, tangible advantage; you have no business to be indignant if we have found it impossible with a peaceful conclusion to gain the credit of what is called a spirited foreign policy. I do not ask whether this justification would satisfy reasonable men; the question is of little importance, because few people are reasonable; and the fact is that, rightly or wrongly, the attitude of our Government in regard to foreign affairs has not been such as to strengthen their position at home. Perhaps the solution of the difficulty was impossible; the demands made by

our native politicians were inconsistent and impracticable; and the real blame should be thrown not upon Mr. Gladstone, but upon the national temper, which he has reflected with only too much fidelity. However true this may be, the average of mankind is not the less angry with a piece of machinery that has gone wrong because it was their own handiwork. It is no use to tell a man that an ugly face is the reflection of his own countenance; he is not the less ready to blame the mirror.

The Government has been equally unfortunate in another way. Mr. Lowe's energetic financial reforms were doubtless intended to pacify the radicals, who are always crying out for a reduction of expenditure. But the same people who would have advocated them most eagerly are very much annoyed at the result. The diminution of our warlike armaments at the present moment has certainly been anything but felicitous; and the mode in which the economy has been effected has not been more propitious. The lowering of the income tax has a very indirect effect upon the working-classes; whereas the dismissal of a large number of artisans has touched them in the most sensitive part. They naturally say, You have kept up the incomes of the great ministers of state; and you claim credit for ruthlessly taking off a few wretched clerks in public offices and cutting down the numbers of workmen employed in the dockyards. The result of this precious piece of economy has been to leave us specially ill provided with the means of defence just at the very time when they are most required. A little incident which happened at Mr. Forster's meeting is perhaps worthy of notice in this relation. One of his constituents asked him whether he was prepared to cut down the "Queen's pay"—a term which shocks all official proprieties—to £100,000 a year. Mr. Forster, of course, gave a decorous negative to the enquiry; and the meeting does not seem to have insisted upon the question. It would, of course, be absurd to attach any importance to a noisy "interpellation" at a public meeting; but the question indicates a certain irritation, more or less widely spread, not against the monarchy, but against the supposed tendencies of our economical rulers. They are held to have begun at the wrong end.

Putting together what I have said, I think we may assume that Mr. Gladstone's government is just now incurring a very formidable amount of popular discontent. The clouds are gathering from various quarters. There has been a want of dignity and coherent policy on the part of the cabinet; and though it may be urged that they could not have been better under the circumstances, they have failed to make the desirable impression upon the country. A large majority is still bound to support Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons; but there is increased discontent among his radical allies, and growing confidence amongst his conservative opponents. It would be impossible to guess from what quarter difficulties may first arise; and I am content to say that we have the prospect of a stormy session. I will venture very shortly to hint at another change of sentiment which, though it has little popular significance, is displaying itself in more than one quarter. The great popular remedy for all grievances is to bring everything more immediately under the action of Parliament. If the army is out of order, it is because the House of Commons cannot make its will felt with sufficient readiness. The Duke of Cambridge acts as a kind of lightning-conductor to divert the wrath of parliamentary orators by the reverence which gathers round the royal family. Let him be removed, and we shall be able to clear away all abuses. The opposite side of the question is put in a very able article in this number of the *Quarterly Review*, attributed to Lord Salisbury. According to him, the great evil is the incessant interference of Parliament, and the incessant change of policy and government which has resulted from it. No definite plan can be followed out for a series of years, because every minister upsets that which his predecessor had accomplished. We have a series of fits of extravagance, each followed by a fit of excessive economy; but no thorough reorganization is ever carried out on an intelligible plan. Now, what is true of the army is true of other things. Parliament is absolutely crushed under the enormous weight of every kind of business thrown upon it, and is, in short, as Mr. Bright truly said, a most clumsy piece of legislative machinery. Our ministers are men who need have no qualification for their place except the power of speaking to a large audience; they are moved about from one office to another; and just as a man learns something about education he is sent off to manage the navy, and thence transferred, it may be, to the government of the colonies. Of course, he is really crammed by his subordinates, and does his business well or ill with a main eye to pleasing his masters in the House of Commons or his constituents in the country. The conclusion has been drawn by many people that one of our most established commonplaces is radically wrong. There was no fact on which our ordinary political wr-

ters vaunted the superiority of the English to the American constitution more confidently than the responsibility of ministers to Parliament. It was said to be a gross defect in your system that the President and his cabinet should be capable of holding on in spite of the displeasure of Congress, and an equal merit in ours that a change might be effected at a moment's notice. The question is a very large one, and there is much to be said on both sides. I will simply remark that our eyes seem to be opening to the fact that there is something to be said against our practice, and that some reform is urgently needed. That Parliament should be supreme is admitted; but when the legislature becomes also an administrative body, and a committee of six hundred and fifty-eight gentlemen insists upon interfering in every petty detail, and making ministers its humble servants, to follow every change in its sentiments, the advantage of its interference becomes questionable. I am, however, straying rather too far, and opening a very complicated political problem. I will therefore conclude by simply noticing the fact that such discussions are exciting some attention, though they are far enough removed, in all probability, from any practical application.

THE WAR DRAIN.

BERLIN, Jan. 18, 1871.

THE war is daily assuming darker and uglier features; its worst effects begin to be felt in every household all over the country. Besides those who are sick, we have lost in battle 3,398 officers and 76,400 rank and file, of whom 1,025 officers and 10,622 rank and file are killed. Not exactly that the cradle and the grave are robbed to contribute towards the reinforcement of our weakened battalions, but we are compelled to fall back upon our oldest reserves. Even the landwehr of 1854—*i. e.*, those who had served their time and became landwehrmen in 1854—are called in, men of forty years are levied for garrisoning the fortresses and watching the prisoners, old cavalrymen are drilled into infantrymen, and those reserves which for some reason or other were excused from serving at the time of their becoming liable, and consequently have hitherto been spared, are now ordered to come forward and shoulder the musket. The old Prussian provinces bear the heaviest share of this burden, as the new ones and the other German states have either no landwehr at all, or only one which exists since 1866. The drain of men is so great that Germany would be unable to carry on this war, with all her energy, were it not for Prussia. Thus all the reserves which Bavaria up to this time has been able to raise are only 8,000 men, while Württemburg could not send more than 1,700. Nevertheless, these small states demand a preferred position and a number of reserved rights in the new German empire; it looks as if they had taken South Carolina for their model, as it was before the great rebellion. "Demand as much as you can, and do as little as possible," seems to be their motto.

There is hardly a profession in Prussia which does not suffer enormously under this state of affairs. In December and January, 200,000 men have been raised and partly been sent to the seat of war; 100,000 more, the young soldiers who on the first of last October entered into the service, are prepared to follow; and, if need be, a full million of men will constitute the German armies in France, and practically refute the enemy's theory that Germany is not strong enough to impose her will upon the French. It is undoubtedly no pleasure-trip for our soldiers just at this season of the year, to travel in cold and badly ventilated cars, to have little warm clothing or any comfort, and to leave almost helpless behind their wives and children. But to the credit of these brave men, I must say that they face this unalterable fate heroically. They reflect and represent the common feeling of this country. In spite of all sacrifices, there is not a single man who is not willing to imperil health and life so as to bring the war to a successful issue. "We must conquer France in order to have peace in future," is the all-prevailing sentiment of the people, although every one desires the end of the bloody war.

Whatever is required of it will most cheerfully be done, and, if the last man and the last horse were necessary for terminating this war with the unconditional surrender of the French, they would be furnished. In this respect, there is not the least difference of opinion between the government and the people, or among the political parties, in which, however, I do not include the corporal's guard of a clique of so-called democratic socialists. The greater the devotion of the people, the more unpardonable are the petty ways of the Government in which it seeks to annoy and disturb those whom it dislikes. The press of all parties, with perhaps two insignificant exceptions, deserves credit for having stopped its private

quarrels and domestic animosities, and for having assisted the Government in all its war measures. To thank them for this conciliating and patriotic spirit, the minister of war not only stops the circulation of these papers which he supposes inimical to the Government, but even destroys them, for the sole purpose of vexing the proprietors. Thus, Mr. Franz Duncker, the owner of the *Volkszeitung*, the liberal organ of the party of progress, at the request of the Crown Princess had sent gratis one thousand copies of his paper to the several hospitals and camps, but nevertheless Mr. Von Roon, without any reason for this arbitrary mode of action, orders their seizure and destruction. Mr. Duncker has sued the minister for damages; but I doubt whether he will recover judgment, as the Government will raise a "conflict of competence" (between its courts and its organs of administration), one of its favorite and always successful means of arresting the course of justice.

Painful as is the necessity of doing the war business most thoroughly, it shows on the other hand how little the spirit of the people is imbued with a Cesarian or aggressive tendency. The great moral advantage of the war consists in demonstrating to the world at large that a people of which every able man is a soldier, can more easily be injured in all its vital interests than any other, and that the equivalent for its readiness to take up arms is only given in the prospect of enjoying the fruits of its warlike efforts in peace and tranquillity. It looks as if even France had at last discovered in what our superiority lies. Not that it fights better than under the Empire, but within the last two months the French army shows more enthusiasm, more "*élan*" and more devotion and self-sacrificing spirit, than the old troopers. The secret is that the young educated men have now taken up arms against us. It is to be hoped, in the interest of the French as well as of the civilized world in general, that this exception will in future become the rule; that these young men will improve the military spirit of the people, and form a transition to the general obligation of military service as with us. Human blood will thus become more valuable, the family feelings will be called in, in quite a new way, for the control of the governmental policy, the educated and richer classes will no longer look down from the galleries into the arena, applauding or hissing their gladiators. The decision of peace or war will no longer exclusively rest with journalists, lawyers, or priests, but also with the fathers who have their sons in rank and file, and the politicians of course will become more prudent. This desirable change will give us the best guarantee for a durable peace among the two nations. Whatever may be asserted to the contrary, I believe that, to judge from the feeling and principles of all classes of the German people, a nation with a military constitution like ours is the last to rush into a war, and that it is only powerful and formidable in a purely defensive war.

It is a bad time just now for predicting, after so many prophecies on the result of our operations have failed; but I state only the common impression that the fall of Paris is near at hand, as it is not presumed that it will hold out longer than the end of this month. Even if it offers a longer resistance, the city is doomed. Chanzy is out of harm's way for at least some months to come; Faidherbe will not succeed in breaking through Goeben's veteran ranks, and even if Bourbaki should meet with better luck against Manteuffel and Werder, the advantages won by him would not enable him to interrupt all our four lines of connection with Germany nor to relieve Paris. The question now suggests itself, How to make peace after the surrender of the capital? There are two answers, or, rather, two versions of one answer, to the query. The first, which has been published by some English papers, says that only the forts of the city are to be occupied, and that they, as well as a sufficient extent of territory, will be held until the French accept our terms of peace. What these terms are is not stated, but it is settled beyond any doubt that, besides a heavy bill of costs to be presented, Alsace and the German part of Lorraine, with its three important fortresses of Metz, Strasbourg, and Belfort, will never be given up again to France. The possession of these fortresses will just reverse the former state of things, because by their loss the French will be prevented from ever invading again our territory, while we have the key for locking our doors. My information runs thus, that King William will not accept the surrender of Paris unless the *de facto* powers which have ruled during the siege shall have signed a peace acknowledging the German conditions. If they refuse to do so, it is even proposed to reject all offers of surrender, and let the starving population wait until they have come to a different conclusion. This apparently cruel way is, in fact, the most effective and mildest, as it saves all further bloodshed. A sufficient, if not the greater, part of the contribution to be laid on France will be collected in Paris, be it in cash, in men-

of-war, or in "rentes," so that the population of the country will in their own interest acquiesce in the terms imposed upon them, as it will thus have to pay the smaller portion of the contribution. It is, however, possible that a sudden change in the condition of affairs may affect the present resolution of King William and Bismarck. Under other circumstances, they may try another solution of the problem. At all events, it will become necessary to occupy some of the easily defensible departments, in order to secure the compliance with the German conditions, and even if the greater part of our troops can return in spring or summer, some 100,000 to 200,000 will be left in France for a year or two for the enforcement of our claims.

The sale of the Remington rifles by your Government to the French has produced a very painful impression here. The 750,000 pieces which came across the ocean in this way have enabled the French to arm the troops of General Faidherbe and other generals. Apart from other considerations, there is a great difference in a sale effected by private parties and by a government, for the articles sold by the latter are entirely alike, and for this reason, if for no other, superior to a collection of half-a-dozen other patterns sold by different parties. The 350,000 Remingtons sold on October 18, at Washington, a great portion of which have already reached Germany by having been taken from French prisoners, are even of a superior make. I do not say too much in asserting that without English and American arms and ammunition the French would not have been able to continue their resistance. I am not of the opinion of Count Bernstorff, according to which a neutral government must prohibit its subjects from trade in arms with a belligerent. On the contrary, I believe that under the present law of nations the subject of a neutral can deal in contrabands as much as he likes, but at his own risk. The case stands still stronger against us in our relations with the United States. Under the treaty of May 1, 1828, which in its twelfth article revives article twelve of the treaty between the parties in 1785, as well as articles thirteen to twenty-four inclusive of that which was concluded in 1790 (see "U. S. Statutes at Large," vol. viii., pp. 90, 168, and 384), "the free intercourse and commerce of the subjects or citizens of the party remaining neutral with the belligerent powers shall not be interrupted, . . . and to prevent all the difficulties and misunderstandings that usually arise respecting merchandise of contraband, such as arms, ammunition, and military stores of every kind, no such articles carried in the vessels or by the subjects or citizens of either party, to the enemies of the other, shall be deemed contraband, so as to induce confiscation or condemnation and a loss of property to individuals." Thus we cannot complain of any trespass upon our rights, but we think that, to say the least, it is an act of discourtesy on the part of your Government to sell those rifles just at the present moment. Uncle Sam is not so poor as to be in immediate want of the money, he could have waited a few months longer, and even if by waiting he had lost a few hundred thousand dollars, he would have done better to reciprocate the friendly feelings which Germany never has failed to extend to him. I remember that the King of Prussia, in the early days of May, 1861, was the first European prince who expressed his hearty sympathies with the then endangered Union. I know from a very careful perusal of the German press that, with a very few exceptions, it sided earnestly with the cause of freedom; and every American financial man knows that no country has bought more of your securities than Germany, which still holds some four hundred to five hundred millions of dollars of your bonds. You will object that our moneyed men acted in their own interest and not from sympathy. Probably and certainly so, but what other country of Europe was so well informed and so friendly disposed as to dare risk an investment of so large an amount? Perhaps England or France? Those Americans, however, and your own Government, who blame and wish to punish England for her policy towards the rebels and her omissions in the *Alabama* case, before pressing their claims too eagerly, will do well to consider the beam in their own eye instead of beholding the mote in their neighbor's eye.

FRIEDRICH KAPP.

Notes.

MR. THEODORE TILTON, lately editor of the *Independent*, gives notice of his intention to publish, on the 1st of March, a new weekly journal, to be called the *Golden Age*, "and to be devoted to the free and untrammeled discussion of all the living questions of church, state, literature, art, society, and reform." In the absence of any particulars, we are unable to say to what extent the paper will be religious and to what reformatory. The

subscription price will be three dollars, and Mr. Tilton's address is Box 2848, N. Y. P. O.—Messrs. Hurd & Houghton have in preparation: "Stories from Old English Poetry," mainly from Shakespeare, Chaucer, and Spenser, by Mrs. Abby Sage Richardson; "Three Successful Girls," by Julia Crouch; "Castles in the Air, by "Barry Gray;" "The Débardeur," a posthumous novel by the late Fred. S. Cozzens; "Notes on the Gospels," by Dr. Chas. H. Hall; the two final volumes of the "Sermons of Dr. South;" the second volume of the "Surgical Memoirs of the U. S. Sanitary Commission," edited by Professor Hamilton, and the fifth of the "Final Reports;" and two valuable law books: "The American Life and Accident Insurance Cases," being all the reported cases decided on in the United States down to November, 1870, with notes referring to the leading English cases, by M. M. Bigelow, and "Leading Cases upon the Law of Fire Insurance," by Edmund H. Bennett and M. M. Bigelow.—Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will issue, and will receive subscriptions for, a reprint of the "Lord Chancellor's Decisions" from 1849 to Michaelmas Term, 1865, for the first time in this country. "The reports will be reprinted verbatim, with notes appended to each case, referring to all the important English and American decisions which bear upon the points decided in it." There will be twenty-two volumes in all, deliverable monthly, at the subscription price of \$5 each.—Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia, solicit subscriptions for a "Life of Hon. John J. Crittenden," with selections from his correspondence and speeches, to be edited by his daughter, Mrs. Chapman Coleman. The work will make two large octavo volumes, of the best workmanship, accompanied by two portraits on steel, and will cost \$5 a volume. It will have a kindred interest for the historian with the "Life of W. W. Seaton" just issued by Messrs. J. R. Osgood & Co.—A limited number of catalogues of the library of the late President Sparks are now obtainable of Messrs. Sever, Francis & Co., Boston and Cambridge. The sale of this important collection was announced in the *Nation* last summer, and a circular dated January 23 states that the family in Cambridge are prepared to receive offers for the library *as a whole*, at any time within five weeks from the date mentioned. The manuscripts, however, of which several are exceedingly valuable, may be included or not at the purchaser's option. One volume is expressly reserved—it contains twenty-six autographs of Washington, Franklin, and Lafayette which have an intrinsic interest apart from the celebrity of the writers. We should suppose that the Library of Congress, the Boston Public Library, and (poverty aside) the Library of Harvard College would, above all others, contend for this collection, whose richness in works pertaining to American history will be apparent to any one who examines the catalogue.—Messrs. Roberts Brothers announce that, in consequence of a blunder made by the stereotyper, pages 50 and 56 of the 16mo edition of William Morris's "Earthly Paradise" are transposed. Purchasers may obtain perfect copies by sending back the defective copies to the publishers.—Messrs. Pott & Amery, 5 Cooper Union, solicit subscriptions to the "Collected Works of the Rev. Milo Mahan, D.D., late Rector of St. Paul's Church, Baltimore," edited by the Rev. John H. Hopkins, Jr. The work will be in three volumes, costing ten dollars; the first containing Dr. Mahan's "Church History," continued beyond the period which it reached in the edition already published, the second his work on *Mystic Numbers*, with a memoir of the author, and the third his miscellaneous writings.

—In May last, with Parts I.-XII. of Dr. Thomas's ("Lippincott's") "Universal Pronouncing Dictionary of Biography and Mythology" before us, we declared that work "the best, as well as the most comprehensive book of its description emanating from the pen of one writer—in any language—which has come under our notice;" and now that it is completed—in two large and handsome volumes—it gives us pleasure to state that there is nothing in its more recent parts which should make us alter or modify our opinion of its merits. On the contrary, to the praise of fulness, clearness, and correctness we must add that of surprising freshness, considering to what a degree the revision of the work, in numbers so rapidly following each other, must have absorbed the energies of the diligent author. Thus we read under *MacMahon* of the defeats of that marshal "at Wörth (August 6, 1870) and at the great battle of Sedan (about September 1); under *Steinmetz*, that "he contributed to the great victory near Metz," and "was removed from command" soon after; and under *Trochu*, that "on the formation of the Republic, September 4, he became president of the Executive Committee, the highest office in the Provisional Government," and "commanded the forces which defended Paris against the Germans during the siege of that capital in the autumn of 1870." A very valuable introductory treatise on the pronunciation of the principal European and Asiatic languages has been added to complete

the "Preface," and a comprehensive "Vocabulary of Christian Names," in a number of languages, as a supplement.

—Of all the almanacs of the year the most curious is without doubt that product of the siege of Paris, "L'Almanach des Bastions," of which we do not pretend, however, to have seen a copy. Novel, so far as we know, in this country, is the almanac for 1871 published (at Minneapolis) by the University of Minnesota, and especially adapted to that State and institution. The pages devoted to the meteorology of Minnesota will find interested readers in other parts of the Union; the chronological tables, list of the State's libraries, and some other statistics have a more local character. Best of all almanacs with which we are acquainted is that published by Whitaker in London (New York : Pott & Amery), and which is sold for fifty cents. The amount of useful information compressed into this small volume of 325 pages is truly surprising, and its accuracy hardly less so, so far as we can judge. It would be difficult to state satisfactorily the contents of "Whitaker's Almanack," but an Englishman could desire little more than it gives him. He may turn to it for a summary of Parliamentary discussion, the statutes enacted, the Peerage and House of Commons, the census, state of the public debt, various rates of the income tax from 1842 to 1871, list of army officers by regiments, list of naval ships and their captains, university officers, masters and teachers of the principal schools and colleges, list of clubs, British administrations during the century, railway and life insurance statistics, hackney-coach regulations, Oxford and Cambridge races to date, banks and bankers, the chief societies and institutions, with the name of the president and secretary in each case, imports and exports, important occurrences of the year previous, the distinguished dead, remarkable discoveries and inventions, an outline of the British empire in all its parts, and of the constitution of every civilized and semi-civilized country on the globe. For much more, too, that we have not space to relate. The fulness of the *personnel*, if we may so term it, of this almanac is remarkable, and is what gives it an especial value to Americans (especially to American editors), though if they would study it for a better knowledge of Great Britain, they would find it a most useful and comprehensive instructor.

—The year 1870 has not been rich in historical publications. In this country especially it would be hard to name a single publication of the year which will take permanent rank in historical literature. The concluding volume of Dr. Draper's "History of the Civil War" has enough merits to be an exception, if these merits were not balanced by equally great defects; at any rate, it takes respectable rank. Several works, on the other hand, which one associates at first thought with this year, like Mr. Froude's closing volumes, Mr. Long's third volume, and Mr. Lea's "Studies in Church History," belong in reality to the closing months of the year before. Our brief survey, therefore, will not be confined to 1870. In the field of ancient history, the second volume of Lenormant and Chevalier's "History of the East" contains the history of the Persians, Phoenicians, and Arabians. It had been intended to include the Indians, but the plan was changed on account of the very doubtful character of the authorities in Indian history. This manual contains without doubt the best compendium of what is known of primitive Oriental history, and may be recommended as not only serviceable but indispensable to the student. The second volume of Ihne's "Römische Geschichte" has the same general character as the first. The author has made an eminently readable book, but will not keep his promise as to dimensions. This volume only finishes the Second Punic War, so that the entire work can hardly be shorter than Mommsen's. The author, who has himself lived in England, is engaged upon an English translation, for which we predict a good degree of popularity. Holm's "Geschichte Siciliens im Alterthume" is a thorough and valuable study of a very important and interesting branch of ancient history. The first volume brings the history down to the Athenian expedition against Syracuse, B.C. 415. In modern history, the most important contribution is probably the concluding volumes of Burton's "History of Scotland," which reach to the reign of William III. This is admitted to be by far the best history of Scotland in existence. Miss Jane Williams's "History of Wales" has neither the extent nor the importance and interest of Mr. Burton's work, but is worthy the regard of those who wish a more detailed account of the history of this interesting country than they can find in English writers. The second volume of Sir Edward Creasy's "History of England" covers the period from Edward II. to Richard III. inclusive, thus embracing the "hundred-year war" and the War of the Roses. The praise we gave to the first volume (see No. 208) is even better deserved by this. It is not a mere compilation, but abounds in admirable discussions of important points little understood. Boxmann's "Politik

der Päbste," in two volumes (1868-9), is written from a Protestant point of view, but with great impartiality, and extends from the pontificate of Gregory I. to that of Gregory VII. The author was engaged upon a monograph upon Gerbert (Pope Sylvester II.), to which this was, as it were, a preparation; his death has, however, frustrated this plan. We find hardly anything more in mediæval history except a new edition of Dahlmann's "Quellenkunde der Deutschen Geschichte," revised and much enlarged by Professor Waite of Göttingen, who has been pronounced "the greatest living master in German history." This too belongs to 1869. Indeed, the most striking event for 1870, in connection with mediæval history, has been the death of Jaffé, editor of the *Bibliotheca Rerum Germanicarum*—an irreparable loss. We should, however, except the town histories, of which a large number have appeared. To this class, we suppose, should be assigned the late Toulmin Smith's valuable treatise on "English Gilds." Dr. Brentano's introduction to this, published as an independent work, has already been noticed by us. Probably the most important work in this field is Von Maurer's "Geschichte der Stadtverfassung in Deutschland," the third volume of which has recently appeared. This author rejects the guild theory of the origin of towns, and denies also the continuance of Roman municipal institutions (in German cities, we suppose), and considers the city institutions to have been in all cases developed from village institutions—a theory which, as a general, if not exclusive one, seems every way reasonable. In special town histories it will be enough to notice the publication of the mediæval chronicle of Strassburg, and the third volume of Ennen's "Geschichte der Stadt Köln." The latter covers the history of the fifteenth century, and a very little more—a most interesting period, when we consider that at its commencement belongs the triumph of the guilds, and at its end the beginning of the Reformation; and that Charles the Bold's transactions with Cologne fall within it. Baron Hübner's "Life of Sixtus V." has an especial bearing on the great pontiff's diplomacy.

—It may be a not accidental coincidence with the rapid development of Prussian power, that the recent literature upon Prussian history is especially rich. To say nothing of the documents published in the "Urkunden und Atenstücke," and in "Scriptores Rerum Prussicarum" (each of which has reached several volumes), and of Droysen's "Geschichte der Preussischen Politik," and Ebert's "Geschichte des Preussischen Staats" (of which volume 4 reaches to 1763), there are two special works of merit upon the period of the Great Elector. H. Peter has written a history of the war of 1672 against France, and Erdmannsdörffer a life of the great minister Von Waldeck, who inspired Frederic William's counsels for several years, and who first sketched the policy which Prussia has now taken up after an interval of two centuries—a union of Protestant Germany—it was then under the lead of Brandenburg. His plans were frustrated at the time by the war with Charles XI. of Sweden. In later periods of history we have a few valuable works. The completion of Von Sybel's "Geschichte der Revolutionszeit" places before us a work of the first historical importance. The fourth volume of Lanfrey's "Histoire de Napoléon I." reaches to the year 1809. Its special value—apart from its character as an able history—is in marking the reaction in France itself against the worship of the first Napoleon, of whom the author is a decided antagonist. The second volume of Taxile Delord's "Histoire du Second Empire" comes down to the year 1860. This is an equally significant expression of the French reaction against Napoleonism in its later and meaner form.

—Mr. A. R. Wallace reviews in *Nature* a pleasing volume of essays, written nearly a century ago, on the "Intelligence and Perfectibility of Animals from a Philosophic Point of View," and now published by Chapman & Hall, London. The author was Charles Georges Leroy, formerly Ranger of Versailles and Marly, and his aim was to prove that the mental faculties of animals are strictly comparable with those of man; that they remember, combine, and reflect; that they are capable of self-improvement; and even that they possess a true language fully adapted to their needs. We have used Mr. Wallace's words in this summary, who adds further that M. Leroy "was, in many of his conceptions, far in advance of the great philosophers of the last century among whom he lived." Some of his observations are cited and are very curious. Crows, for instance, he proves, can count as well as some savages. A man posted in a hut beneath a tree to shoot the old birds on their return to their nests, was, after the first time, always watched into the hut, and the tree avoided till dark or till he had left. Two men then went to the hut, and one passed on, but to no purpose, as the absent one was missed; nor could three men deceive: and it was not till five or six men went and left one of their number behind that the crows' reckoning failed them. M. Leroy also restricts instinct "to

those acts which are the direct consequences of organization, such as the grazing of the stag or the flesh-eating of the fox." Nest-building he declares is subject to improvement from experience—old birds building better than young ones, and those birds whose young remain long in their nests, and so have more opportunity of seeing how they are made, having the best-constructed nests. Migration, even, he ascribes to tradition, and says of the swallows, for example, that their preparations indicate clearly not a spontaneous impulse but the most careful deliberation and instruction; and the late-born who remain behind, because unequal to the flight, mature without "the supposed attraction to a certain region," and perish because of their ignorance due to their tardy birth.

—About a year ago, we compared, as we were able, the phonetic decay which the French language had undergone, in somewhat analogous circumstances, in the islands of Trinidad and Hayti, and in Louisiana, as the common speech of the negroes. The Creole grammar is an interesting study, and it may be extended much further than has just been intimated by any one whose field includes also the island of Mauritius. This favored spot has additional philological interest from the fact that the Indians and coolies corrupt the negro patois itself, which thus holds the same relation to their jargon that the pure French of the colonists does to the Creole. The latter agrees with the Creole of Trinidad and Louisiana in a general confusion of number and gender, and in simplifying the pronominal forms. *Mo, to or vous, and li* pass for *je, tu, il, elle*; and *mien* is represented by *pour mo*. The writer in the *Athenaeum* for December 31, 1870, from whom we are borrowing our information, cites the form *zot* (a "very common word") as a corruption of *les autres*. We cannot dispute with him, but the Trinidad *zôtes* (you), for *vous autres*, suggests another derivation. The coalescing of the definite article with the noun, by which the force of it is wholly lost (as, in Trinidad, *lapôte*, meaning simply a door), occurs also in Mauritius; e.g., *li chien*, a dog (*chien*). This substitution of *ç* for *ch* is peculiar to the latter country, where, on the other hand, the softening or dropping of *r* does not seem to be customary. At least, this is not indicated by the spelling of the examples given in the *Athenaeum*. We have doubts, indeed, if the true method of reporting patois has yet been established. The temptation is much the same as that felt and yielded to by our humorists when they misspell words pronounced the same by everybody, merely in order to preserve to the eye their assumption of illiteracy. For instance, the negroes in Hayti, as in Trinidad, use the sign "noo" to indicate "we." For the first-named we have seen the form *nou*, for the latter (more correctly) *nous*, set down, there being no difference in the pronunciation. In Mauritius, as in the West Indies, the word *était* degenerates into *té* (also *ti* in Mauritius), and in this form serves as an auxiliary for the past tenses:

"Si mo té va zozo (les oiseaux),"

—"if I were a bird" (the contracted plural noun forming a new singular);

"Et té blizé (obligé) posé tout moment,"

—"and was obliged to rest every moment." *Fin*, a remnant of *finir*, is another auxiliary for the past tenses, while with *après* an imperfect may be formed ("quand mo après faire ça," when I was doing that), and *talheure*, for *tout à l'heure*, supplies a future—e.g., "talheure mo vini," I shall come presently. *Capar'*, the attenuated form of *capable*, takes the place of *pouvoir* in all possible relations. Curious in the Mauritius vocabulary is the selection of strong words to express simple ideas. Examples of this, which are frequent enough in the French itself—as *écouter* from *auscultare*, *chanter* from *cantare* with only the force of the primitive *canere*—are *guetter*, to look, instead of *regarder*; *ramasser*, to gather, instead of *cueillir*; *semb'* (*ensemble*), with, oftener than *avec*; and perhaps *chumbo* (*tiens bon*), catch hold. Some nautical expressions have likewise been weakened: "larguer", to let go a rope on board ship, is Creole for letting go anything; and *amarre* (to moor) is used for tying up anything." We conclude with what the writer vouches for as "a *bondé* Volkslied," sung by children:

Mo passé la rivière Tanné:
Mo guetté là une grand'maman:
Mo canéé li qui li faire là:
Li canéé mo li péçé poison.
 Ol! ol! mes enfants.
Faut travaille pour avoir son pain.

Beside it we may place the following words of a Louisiana *coonjai*, or minuet, in which *pancor* stands for *pas encore*, *ouar* for *coir* (*eu*), and the other words scarcely need explanation:

Mo déjà roulé tout la côte.
Pancor ouar pareil belle Layotte.
Mo roulé tout la côte.
Mo roulé tout la colonie;
Mo pancor ouar griffonne la
Qua mo gout comme la belle Layotte.

Trübner's Literary Record for Dec. 31, 1870, gives some interesting extracts from an essay on the philology of the Creole dialect, by Mr. J. J. Thomas, author of a Creole grammar, and adds a note on the extent of the Creole literature.

—The concluding number of last year's London *Athenaeum* opens with a very extensive article on "Continental Literature in 1870," or, rather with a series of articles, contributed by various writers, on the latest literary productions of Germany, France, Belgium, Italy, Russia, Spain, Hungary, the Netherlands, and Denmark, those of the Swedish, Polish, Portuguese, and Greek press being passed over. Some of the single reviews, like that on French literature, are remarkable both for comprehensiveness and sound critical judgment, while others have at least the merit of speaking correctly and knowingly of literatures generally ignored, such as the Russian and Magyar; and the series as a whole presents an interesting and naturally checkered picture of a vast field of mental activity, from comparatively youthful Russia, where now "the spirit of poetry, no doubt, still lives, but writers are becoming too nihilistic to express it," to old and yet childish France, where "we find a professor of the University of France going so far as to draw a map giving the new political divisions of Europe such as they will be *most probably* in 1871 (with the Rhenish provinces and Belgium awarded, of course, to the Emperor Napoleon)." The most pretentious, though decidedly not the most valuable or the most substantial, of the single articles is the opening one on German literature. It is not only marred by glittering but superficial statements, but also by an exceedingly defective revision. The name of Becker, the author of the well-known Rhine song, "Sie sollen ihn nicht haben," is changed into "Beck;" that of Goethe's Eckermann into "Erckmann;" Kotzebue into "Kotzebu;" Carl Frenzel into "Carl Trenzel;" the title of Spielhagen's "Hammer und Amboss" into "Slommer and Ambos," and that of Meissner's "Ziska" into "Zinka," to mention only the more glaring mistakes. The name of the Empress Maria Theresa is repeatedly given in this form, "M. Theresia," which is neither English nor good German.

BENCH AND BAR OF NEW YORK.

PERHAPS a fourth of the eight hundred pages to which this volume is swollen might have been amusingly filled with the gossiping biographies it gives of thirty-three lawyers in the State of New York whose names and labors have escaped oblivion since the century began. Only three of these are among the many noted men who chose their field and gained their fame in this city, although the book introduces by way of sketch or allusion more than a hundred others—so that its omissions are as conspicuous as its selections. Very little attempt is made to distinguish or characterize the objects of its eulogy; and still less to explain the influence which any of them exerted in settling legal principles or developing jurisprudence during the early history of the State. It is disappointing to follow a college quarrel through a couple of pages, or to read the feebly dramatic recital of a common assault diluted into a dozen, when Kent, Emmet, and Walworth are dismissed with a paragraph apiece, and no notice is taken of the gradual, laborious adjustment by great minds of an inherited feudal system of law to the needs of a free people in a new land.

The most spirited personal sketches are those which were furnished to the author of the book by others. Still, a good deal of labor has been devoted to collecting details of the lives of its subjects, and tracing with wearisome repetition the part taken by almost all of them in the political contests of their time. So far, the book may be of service for reference, but the rest of it would speedily have lined trunks or wrapped parcels in the days when waste printed paper met that fate. Its slovenly style, florid and flaccid as a reporter's, could not rescue it, even though borrowing an air of comic freshness by invoking Themistocles, Fiesole the painter, and the great Rubens.

These indifferent sketches have, however, one use. They strengthen by touches of detail from individual example our just respect for the legal profession of the early times in the State of New York. They confirm the French publicists' judgment of American lawyers as the leading and conservative order in the State; and they may avail to regulate ambition and recommend probity, by depicting many an honorable career, begun in poverty, struggling fairly up to influence, deviating into politics, returning eagerly to higher and more congenial pursuits, and crowned through protracted years with the reverence of the community.

How has the bar of New York forfeited this respect, and the bench lost this reverence? For no moralist can withhold his rebuke, and no patriot conceal his alarm, at the state into which both are sinking through a steady decline during the last twenty-five years, not judging only from the worst. The legal profession yet retains much of dignity and honor; but if all this good is too weak or too timid to control the flagrant evil, it must, perforce, share the blame of it.

With the bench, the beginning of this decline may be traced, by no accidental coincidence, from the adoption of the Constitution of 1846. It has become trite to say that popular election raised many a party tool, whose professional worth was measured by the paltry salary, to a brief occupancy of office necessarily spent in intrigues for its renewal. The system that creates such officials to use them, of course permits plunder, compels bias, and extorts partiality; so that the "fear, favor, and affection" which law forbids to its mere instrument, a jury, have invaded the seat of its chief ministers as the natural result of short terms, low salaries, and popular choice. The seed of all this rotten fruit lay potentially in the judiciary article of that constitution, and its growth was exactly foretold by more than one of the eminent jurists, then ripe with better experience, whom our author sketches. But the learning and the honesty which still at times maintain the impaired dignity of the courts prove that it could not have reached its present rankness without favoring conditions in the community. Bacon was the more venal because the men of his day were so, and Jeffreys's savagery grew with the rancor of the time. What these general conditions are can be better shown in speaking of the bar, which is more open to their influence. It is encouraging to know that some of the congenital evils of a judicial system which we have tolerated for a quarter of a century have wrought their own cure. The new one invites the services of capable men by lengthening the term of office and removing the prohibition of an increase of salary during its continuance. And the year after next will bring an opportunity to restore the practice of appointment to judgeships, which was so much more rarely abused than the present one of election has been. The direct and satisfactory effect of even this partial return by the last constitutional change to the older and better ways is seen in the high character of the newly-chosen Court of Appeals.

Under such a system as that we have just abandoned, a timid or pliable judge soon disgraces his office, and a bad one makes it infamous. Mental weakness and moral recklessness are both played upon by those men, to be found at the bar as in every other pursuit of life, who follow success regardless of principle. Flagrant wrongs get themselves defended before corrupt tribunals with a boldness and craft that bewilder public opinion. But it is neither indifferent nor demoralized, and it waits only to be enlightened as to facts before it calls judges to account for impeachable acts, and condemns lawyers who risk their reputations by becoming accomplices in them.

This attraction between the bad elements of the bench and the bar would have been less direct had not the same levelling legislation that cheapened the judiciary also thrown the ranks of the profession freely open to any aspirant. The royal road that formerly led through seven years of study to the learning of the law was beaten down into the democratic short cut, by which crowds of incompetent and untrustworthy fledglings pressed in. Perfunctory examinations and facile certificates to character form a poor substitute for the long years of probation in discipline of mind and morals that once preceded admission to practice. The law schools of the city did their best to uphold the old standard, but outside of these it would be curious to trace some of the sources from which the bar of New York is at present recruited. To the cant about privilege, which broke down the ancient safeguards, is added the poor excuse that, after all, ability will make its way. But even if stupidity lags behind, what is to prevent unscrupulous cleverness from taking a lead, and teaching and spreading its corrupt practices? When so many of the least worthy pass from the community into the ranks of the profession—and some, at least, of these work their way through it up to the bench—it is not easy, out of such material and in face of such influences, to create an *esprit de corps* that may prevent it from sinking into a mere money-making trade.

We say to create it, for it has died out, and needs to be again created. These biographies show how real, in the older time, were a common vigilance among lawyers for the interests, and a common jealousy for the dignity, of their calling. At this day no other profession is so incoherent, no other has so little unity of spirit, or power of concerted action, or habit of communion beyond mere business intercourse. Until very lately, its only point of grouping, such as merchants find in their Chamber of Commerce and doctors in their chartered societies, was the Law Institute, and

the whole life and action of that have shrunk into its Library Committee, which has hard work to convene a quorum. In every other leading nation, the bar forms a compact and independent body; in ours, democracy, with its relentless individualism, has disintegrated it into helpless units. The English Inns of Court, incrusted as they are by routine and lazy wealth, do retain and apply that disciplinary power which alone can keep up the standard of the profession. Among us that right of correction is lodged with the judges, who have long neglected to lift the rod with which so many of themselves deserve flagellation. Every lawyer of ten years' standing remembers with a blush that flagrant instance of the futility of this sort of control, when a counsellor disbarred by the chiefs of his own fraternity at home fled hither for refuge, as to a professional Texas, and when the combined effort of some of the best men in the profession failed to dislodge him from the position granted by a facile court. That failure betrayed and encouraged a laxity of discipline among lawyers that has gone on since, until the profession seems to have lost all power of self-correction. Men guilty of penitentiary offences have, it is true, been thrown over the bar within the last few years, though it is whispered that even these men have reappeared in the open conduct of causes. The line of exclusion might range a little higher. It ought to be so drawn and so held by the honorable tone of the profession that the military rule expressed in the 83d of the Articles of War could be adapted to define it; and any member of the bar convicted of conduct unbecoming a lawyer and a gentleman be dismissed the profession. Why not? Is the code an officer subscribes too nice for a barrister to be ruled by? Or, if this seems utopian, the bar might at least organize for its own protection, erecting some standard of respectable conduct, and creating from its own body some tribunal to maintain it, by enforcing rules and inflicting censure. The impatience of one class of men spurs the Bar Association, and the impudence of others defies it, to assume this function. The existence of that organization is indeed a most hopeful sign; but it has less than a year of growth, it is hardly yet compacted, and can at any rate control only its members. Unless we mistake its purpose, however, and the character of the men composing it, the Bar Association will neither shrink from such a responsibility at all, nor accept it when the proper time comes without such deliberate and mature proceeding as may give its action the force of a sentence.

Lawyers easily become politicians. One of our triumvirs, and one of their honored leaders, were trained here at the bar for municipal mis-government. But those subjects of our biographer's sketches who entered into the politics of their time brought with them something higher than pettifoggers' chicane. The names of Marey, Wright, Spencer, and Butler revive memories of dignified debate and statesmanlike measures. It is true that in our day, too, eminent jurists have devoted their abilities, not merely to the discussion of the serious constitutional questions springing from the civil war, but to their settlement, also, by legislation. But it cannot be denied that, in general, the association of polities with the profession in recent times has been highly demoralizing to the latter, particularly to its younger members. Party-managers have never before controlled such resources of money and of place, nor dispensed them with so bold a contempt for appearances. Political leaders systematically avail themselves of astuteness sharpened by legal training, and enlist for the shaping and enforcing of their iniquitous legislation a perverted professional ambition, which they reward by the gift or hope of office. In this city, above all, the connection of politics with the legal profession, chiefly through the patronage of political judges, has been utterly contaminating to the bar.

The laws of a people, it has been said, are never better than their morals. And it is equally true that, however pure the theory and life of individuals among them may be, the great body of the legal profession will never be governed by a higher morality than that of the community they live in. There is no reason why they should form an exception to the rules that control average human nature. The noted men into whose lives this volume gives us an insight were not free from blemish; and their faults, which are rather tenderly touched upon, reflected the temptations peculiar to their time. Some of the best of them were over-eager for place—some of the worst were stained by intemperance or profligacy. But it is not recorded of any of them, still less of the bar which they led, that they were especially mercenary. Now, this is the shape which censure of the legal profession oftenest takes nowadays. And it is quite natural that the haste to grow rich, which everywhere in modern days stimulates general prosperity somewhat at the cost of individual character, should affect the bar as it does all other classes. It should affect them even more directly,

because it happens that those combined colossal schemes for rapid accumulation of wealth which exploit our material development, are precisely the ones that oftenest need the aid of lawyers and legislation to shape and protect them. In the care of a private client's interests or fortune, a lawyer is far less likely to be tempted to wrong or extortion than in dealing with the millions which the directors of a railroad or an insurance company—vicarious owners—lavishly dispose of. It is for the statesman to consider the public aspects of that novel and stupendous power of corporations. He may find means to bind the soulless Frankenstein that modern greed has raised into life. But viewing them as mere clients, the lawyer looks no further than their private advantage and their success in contests with rivals, and there is danger, where transactions are so immense, lest he may lose sight of moderation in fixing a compensation which the managers of his clients do not personally pay. It may happen that boards of directors forget themselves to be only trustees for stockholders, and manage vast funds for their personal objects; it might even occur, since money no less than power has a tendency to steal from the many to the few, that the two or three sharpest and least saintly directors might usurp control of the whole corporate property. Yet in all their transactions they are likely to proceed under color of law, and by advice of counsel. More than this, the enormous aggregated wealth these corporations own is so distributed and so represented by the flexible contrivance of shares, that the existence for half-a-day of a judge's injunction order may cause fluctuations on the exchange that enrich all who are in the secret of its granting. We do not say that any or all of these things have been done; only a court of justice can decide whether they have or not. What we point out is that the temptation for faithless trustees to do them is enormous, and the temptation for a lawyer to find justification or prevent enquiry for their being done by his clients is dangerously strong. Whether fairly or not, members of the bar are charged with the offence of thus corrupting the sources and thwarting the course of justice. Against the names which illustrate the times that this volume sketches such a charge would have been impossible. It would have been impossible, both because the lawyers of that day were more fortunate in their associates, perhaps more punctilious as to their reputations, than many of their successors are, and because the haste to grow rich was a less besetting sin of that generation than it is of ours—because, moreover, it is lamentably true that the sterner earlier morality of the community rebuked such deviations from honorable practice as our modern public accepts with a careless shrug, or even admires as shrewd, and excuses when successful. If the legal profession is ever to become again what it once was, the most respected and powerful order of society, it must set the example of a sharper discrimination between right and wrong than now prevails; and it will take higher ground for doing this whenever legislation retraces all its downward steps as regards the judiciary, and the bar gains control over the admission and discipline of its members.

LIFE AND WORKS OF BEETHOVEN.*

THE attention of the public in this country has been of late directed with a renewed interest to Beethoven and his works. A few years since there was no life of the composer to be found at any of our bookstores. Only at the principal libraries could access be had to dilapidated copies of the old two-volume London edition of 1841, of which the present neat volume, issued by Ditson & Co., is a reprint. Nor did the pianoforte works of the master appear on our concert programmes. But Charles Halle and Arabella Goddard, in England, set the example, and of late it has been followed by Miss Mehlig and Miss Krebs in this country, and the treasure-book of the Beethoven sonatas has been again opened to the public. Then, too, the centennial anniversary of Beethoven's birth, with the universal recognition given to it by the musical world, has assisted in fixing present attention upon this composer. This new edition of his life may therefore be considered a most timely one.

It was indeed singular that no biography was to be found of the man who had so profoundly impressed himself upon his age, who had exercised so powerful an influence upon his art, and who certainly was entitled to be called one of the master spirits of the present century. The one here reprinted is by Schindler. It is confessedly an imperfect work, and it can only serve until some better one is provided. Schindler was an intimate friend of Beethoven's, but he was not the man whom the composer design-

nated for his biographer. It was by an accident that he was called upon to fill that position. Neither his mental habits nor his literary ability fitted him for the task. His work is defective in arrangement, meagre in its details concerning some of the most interesting years of the composer's life, and somewhat clumsy in execution. Many of its statements, too, have been shown by later research to be erroneous. Fortunately, some of these defects have been made good in the present edition, by a supplement containing as much printed matter as the original life, and consisting of sketches of the great musician from the pens of various friends, and of a short work entitled the "Life and Characteristics of Beethoven," by Dr. Heinrich Doring, being a translation of the biographical sketch prefixed to the Wolfenbüttel edition of his sonatas, and already printed in *Dwight's Journal of Music*.

The necessity for an adequate life of the great musician impressed itself so deeply on the mind of one of our countrymen, Mr. Alexander W. Thayer, that years ago, he went to Germany, and commenced a series of investigations so minute and laborious as to astonish even the German scholars, who are ordinarily accredited with the fullest possession of these qualities. But one volume of this work has as yet appeared, and that carries Beethoven only through the earlier years of his life. Strange to say, this volume has only appeared in German. Mr. Thayer looked, doubtless, for the largest recognition of his labors from the countrymen of the composer, and in that view had his book first translated into that tongue. The difficulty with it will probably be that it will prove too long and exhaustive for the general reader. It is not every act and word even of a great genius that is worthy of record, and Mr. Thayer seems to have expended too much strength on the elucidation of trifles. Meantime, Schindler's work must suffice us, and in the main it cannot be doubted that it gives an accurate picture of Beethoven, who was, for that matter, an excellent subject for biography. His life was a fierce battle, from the beginning to the end, full of stormy and troubled scenes and strange episodes. Schindler has neither idealized his hero nor sought to tone down the peculiarities of his strong nature, but to represent him as he was. It was thus that he begged to be presented to posterity, and not behind a painted mask. Forced to struggle with the cares of this world and to provide for his daily bread, he chafed constantly under these distractions, for he desired to live wholly in the ideal, whereas the actual confronted him roughly at every turn. He was moody and morose, unreasonable, suspicious of his best friends, jealous often, unsocial, reluctant to meet those who desired to approach him, strange and careless in all his personal habits, far from neat—in fact, not a man to be commanded so far as the affairs of everyday life were concerned. But the soul of the man was noble, scorning deceit and hypocrisy of every kind, desirous of being just to all, and in sympathy with whatever was noble and lofty. He was also of pure and good life—in manners rough, but in morals uncorrupt. All this Schindler's book brings out clearly, and no one can read it without a feeling of the deepest interest, and also one of profound sympathy with the lonely and isolated composer.

To this volume, "Beethoven's Studies in Thorough-bass, Counterpoint, and Composition," published by Schuberth & Co., forms a valuable sequel. There will undoubtedly be those who will be inclined to go beyond the mere biography of the man, and to look into the methods by which he attained his greatness. His genius, of course, no book of studies can explain; but even genius must labor by rule, and this book contains the maxims upon which he worked, with examples from his own hand in illustration of these rules. Beethoven went always directly and bluntly at his work, and these studies are characteristically concise and clear, giving explicit information in regard to the rules of harmony, the treatment of chords, strict and free counterpoint, and containing also elaborate instructions and illustrations of fugue and canon forms. The translator has added nearly a hundred pages of anecdotes, letters, fac-similes of Beethoven's manuscript, and other interesting matter.

The History of Music. A Series of Lectures by Frederic L. Ritter. (Boston and New York: O. Ditson & Co.)—It is a little curious that two musicians, of remarkable knowledge of their profession, should simultaneously have taken up the same subject and treated it in a similar manner. Mr. John K. Paine, of Boston, a Harvard graduate and an admirable organist and composer, is now engaged in delivering a series of lectures on the history of music, of which this work of Mr. Ritter's is almost a counterpart. Whatever may be thought of the latter's abilities as a conductor—a direction in which he has of late years been brought somewhat prominently before the public, and in which his success was somewhat questionable—there never has been any doubt as to his real learning and

* "The Life of Beethoven." Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co. 1871.

"Beethoven's Studies in Thorough-bass, Counterpoint, and the Art of Composition." New York: J. Schuberth & Co. 1871.

deep research into the history of his art. The little volume recently published embodies some of the results of that research. Commencing with the earliest Christian music of the Catholic Church, Mr. Ritter follows the art in its progress from century to century down to the time of Haydn. The first lecture treats of the Gregorian chant, folk-songs, and the invention of harmony, from the Christian era to the close of the fourteenth century. The second is devoted to the old Flemish, German, English, Italian, and Spanish schools, to the time of the death of Palestrina; the third, to the oratorio and Protestant church music, to the time of Schumann's death; the fourth to the opera, from its invention in Italy to the death of Gluck; the fifth, to the development of instrumental music from the sixteenth century to Haydn. The later history of the art is left for a succeeding volume.

Whoever would possess himself, at the expense of a few hours' pleasant reading, of those essential historical facts in regard to the history of music, with which every person interested in that art should be familiar, may find them well and interestingly stated in this handy volume.

P. Terentii Afri Comoediae. Edited by T. L. Papillon, M.A., Fellow of New College, Oxford, and late Fellow of Merton; Andria, Eunuchus. (London, Oxford, and Cambridge: Rivingtons. 1870.)—This book, one of the *Catena Classicorum*, edited by Arthur Holmes and Charles Bigg, is but a blind guide for the young. The basis taken for the text is the edition of Zeune, 1774. Considering what a stride has been made in the criticism of Plautus and Terence in the last twenty or even in the last five years, it is a little odd that the editor should go back a century, particularly when he had before him such texts as Fleckeisen, 1857, and Wagner, 1869. In fact, the very title of the book makes one suspicious of its quality; the editor writes *Terentii Andria* instead of *Terenti*, forgetful of the summary way in which Ritschl has disposed of such forms once for all: "in *ii* terminatos genitivos ut *ingenii* nihil quicquam præsidii habere tantum tironum caussa moneo, quamquam video etiam proiectiores etate tirones esse."

It is not surprising that the notes founded on this questionable text should be unsubstantial. The metrical explanations are reserved till the work is done. What they will be may be guessed from an occasional hint; for instance, the editor makes *argumento* a word of three syllables. As a specimen of vague grammatical interpretation we may take *Andria*, 17: he reads here with Zeune—

Faciunt ne intellegendo ut nihil intellegant,

with this note: "ne] Bentley reads *nē* (interrogative); but *ne* is often written *ne*; cf. *val. 19*." Here we may note: 1. That Donatus attests the *ne*, which *must* be interrogative. 2. That Bentley was aware that the affirmative *ne* must stand before a pronoun or pronominal adverb. 3. As to the droll statement that "*ne* is often written *ne*," the affirmative particle is *only* written *ne*, *ne* being a spurious form invented by Laurentius Valla, who died in 1457, never found in MSS. or any good printed book. In fine, if there is any one verse of Terence where the reading is beyond doubt, it is this very line of the *Andria*:

Faciuntne intellegendo ut nil intellegant?

In respect to orthography, the text is naturally an improvement on Zeune. But we find such exploded forms as *quum* for *quon*, or *cum*; *negligentia, hiccine, hocce, siccine, adolescentula, illico, futi lis, canare, iniucere, and reiucere, nunc iam* (as two words), *renunciare, maror, Jupiter*.

After Ophir; or, Wild Life in Africa. By Capt. Augustus Lindley. (London: Cassell, Petter & Galpin; New York: Robert Turner.)—*Hunting Grounds of the Old World.* By the Old Shekarry. (New York: George Routledge & Sons.)—The undeniable close relation which exists between

the robust physical nature of the English better classes and the practice of field-sports admits of a double interpretation, a dilemma of cause and effect, which it is worth the while of the moral philosopher to solve. We are disposed, from many personal experiences, to put the sport as cause, and join with hearty warmth any movement which will extend to the chase the consideration given to boating, to gymnastics generally, as a part of the education of a young man. We should be inclined to respect less the type of manhood of a young man whose humanitarianism to the beasts extended to a literal acceptance of the law, *Thou shalt not kill.* "He who needlessly sets foot upon a worm," is *per se* brute, for needless cruelty is no part of a sportsman's nature, and the passion which animates his pursuit of savage beasts has nothing in common with a love of giving pain. That, as a general thing, Americans are deficient in love of these sports, there needs no better proof than the paucity and generally low quality of books on these subjects. Englishmen write all the good books thereon, as they do most of the shooting in all parts of the world. Our boys, however, take to it second-hand immensely, and a book like "After Ophir," while it delights the still unregenerate youthful heart with its peril and excitement of struggle with the kings of brutedom, is calculated to instruct as well. It is well written, and full of information as to the human as well as the brute races of Southern Africa. The author's portrait of a "long Yankee" will hardly, however, establish his reputation for accuracy in dialectic reporting. It is of a nondescript—a Yankee of straw, we fear. The illustrations are capital, and, if drawn by the author, prove him as clever with the pencil as with the pen.

"Hunting Grounds of the Old World" is less noteworthy, both from inferiority of illustration and narrative interest. The name of the Old Shekarry is one known amongst East Indians for exuberant exaggeration, and the unartistic way in which he piles the ground with slain is too much for any but boys of that age which takes kindly to Munchausenisms. For the rest, it is of the same old field from which we have had hunting stories *ad infinitum*, and many better told than this.

* * * Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books upon the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Price.
Adams (Hon. C. F.), <i>The Struggle for Neutrality in America</i> , swd.	(Chas. Scribner & Co.) \$0 50
Albany Law Journal, Vol. II.	(Weed, Parsons & Co.)
American Bookseller's Guide, Vol. II. 1870.	(Am. News Co.)
Anderson (R.), <i>History of the Sandwich Islands Mission</i> .	(Congr. Publ. House)
Appleton's Journal, Vol. IV.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Barker (Prof. G. F.), <i>Text-book of Elementary Chemistry</i> .	(C. C. Chatfield & Co.) 1 75
Barlow (W. S.), <i>The Voice of Prayer</i> , swd.	(Carleton)
Barry (C. A.), <i>How to Draw</i> .	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 0 50
Beecher (Rev. H. W.), <i>The Heavenly State and Future Punishment</i> , swd.	
Dixon (Dr. E. H.), <i>The Kidneys and Bright's Disease</i> , swd.	(J. B. Ford & Co.) 0 20
Garrett (P.), <i>One Hundred Choice Selections</i> .	(J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.) 0 75
Goodwin (Prof. W. W.), <i>Syntax of the Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb</i> , 4th ed.	(Sever, Francis & Co.) 1 75
Hergenröther (Dr.), <i>Anti-Janns</i> .	(Cath. Pub. Society)
Hoar (E. R.), <i>Address at Harvard Memorial Hall</i> , swd.	(Boston)
Iowell (Prof. J. R.), <i>My Study Windows</i> .	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 2 00
Moody (J.), <i>The Science of Evil</i> .	(Crane & Byron) 1 75
Munson (M. A.), <i>God's Doings and Man's Doings for Minisota</i> , swd.	(Chicago)
Pumpelly (R.), <i>Across America and Asia</i> , 5th ed.	(Leybold & Holt) 2 50
Raymond (R. W.), <i>Mines and Mining</i> .	(J. B. Ford & Co.) 4 50
Reavis (L. U.), <i>Saint Louis: the Future Great City of the World</i> , 2d ed., swd.	(St. Louis)
Report on Barracks and Hospitals, Circular No. 4. War Department.	(Washington)
Robert E. Lee: <i>In Memoriam</i> .	(John P. Morton & Co.)
Russell (A. J.), <i>The Red River Country considered in relation to Canada</i> , swd.	(Montreal)
Seaver (E. P.), <i>Formulas of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry</i> .	(Sever, Francis & Co.) 0 80
Taine (H.), <i>Italy: Rome and Naples, Florence and Venice</i> , 3d ed.	(Leybold & Holt) 2 50
Thayer (Hon. M. R.), <i>The Law as a Progressive Science</i> , swd.	(Kay & Bro.)
The Fight in Dame Europa's School, swd.	(A. Brentano)
The Story Lizzie Told, swd.	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.)
Thomas (Dr. J.), <i>Universal Pronouncing Dictionary of Biography and Mythology</i> , complete, 2 vols.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Tyndall (Prof. J.), <i>Scientific Addresses</i> , swd.	(C. C. Chatfield & Co.) 0

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